

1.1 IMPORTANCE OF CHEMISTRY

Chemistry plays a central role in science and is often intertwined with other branches of science.

Principles of chemistry are applicable in diverse areas, such as weather patterns, functioning of brain and operation of a computer, production in chemical industries, manufacturing fertilisers, alkalis, acids, salts, dyes, polymers, drugs, soaps, detergents, metals, alloys, etc., including new material.

Chemistry contributes in a big way to the national economy. It also plays an important role in meeting human needs for food, healthcare products and other material aimed at improving the quality of life. This is exemplified by the large-scale production of a variety of fertilisers, improved variety of pesticides and insecticides. Chemistry provides methods for the isolation of life-saving drugs from natural sources and makes possible synthesis of such drugs. Some of these drugs are **cisplatin** and **taxol**, which are effective in cancer therapy. The drug AZT (Azidothymidine) is used for helping AIDS patients.

Chemistry contributes to a large extent in the development and growth of a nation. With a better understanding of chemical principles it has now become possible to design and synthesise new material having specific magnetic, electric and optical properties. This has led to the production of superconducting ceramics, conducting polymers, optical fibres, etc. Chemistry has helped in establishing industries which manufacture utility goods, like acids, alkalies, dyes, polymers, metals, etc. These industries contribute in a big way to the economy of a nation and generate employment.

In recent years, chemistry has helped in dealing with some of the pressing aspects of environmental degradation with a fair degree of success. Safer alternatives to environmentally hazardous refrigerants, like CFCs (chlorofluorocarbons), responsible for ozone depletion in the stratosphere, have been successfully synthesised. However,

many big environmental problems continue to be matters of grave concern to the chemists. One such problem is the management of the Green House gases, like methane, carbon dioxide, etc. Understanding of biochemical processes, use of enzymes for large-scale production of chemicals and synthesis of new exotic material are some of the intellectual challenges for the future generation of chemists. A developing country, like India, needs talented and creative chemists for accepting such challenges. To be a good chemist and to accept such challenges, one needs to understand the basic concepts of chemistry, which begin with the concept of matter. Let us start with the nature of matter.

1.2 NATURE OF MATTER

You are already familiar with the term **matter** from your earlier classes. Anything which has mass and occupies space is called **matter**. Everything around us, for example, book, pen, pencil, water, air, all living beings, etc., are composed of matter. You know that they have mass and they occupy space. Let us recall the characteristics of the states of matter, which you learnt in your previous classes.

1.2.1 States of Matter

You are aware that matter can exist in three physical states *viz.* **solid**, **liquid** and **gas**. The constituent particles of matter in these three states can be represented as shown in Fig. 1.1.

Particles are held very close to each other in **solids** in an orderly fashion and there is not much freedom of movement. In **liquids**, the particles are close to each other but they can move around. However, in **gases**, the particles are far apart as compared to those present in solid or liquid states and their movement is easy and fast. Because of such arrangement of particles, different states of matter exhibit the following characteristics:

- (i) Solids have *definite volume* and *definite shape*.
- (ii) Liquids have *definite volume* but *do not have definite shape*. They take the shape of the container in which they are placed.

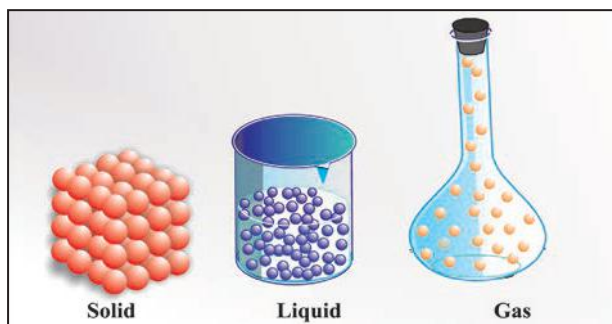


Fig. 1.1 Arrangement of particles in solid, liquid and gaseous state

- (iii) Gases have *neither definite volume nor definite shape*. They completely occupy the space in the container in which they are placed.

These three states of matter are interconvertible by changing the conditions of temperature and pressure.



On heating, a solid usually changes to a liquid, and the liquid on further heating changes to gas (or vapour). In the reverse process, a gas on cooling liquifies to the liquid and the liquid on further cooling freezes to the solid.

1.2.2. Classification of Matter

In Class IX (Chapter 2), you have learnt that at the macroscopic or bulk level, matter can be classified as **mixture** or **pure substance**. These can be further sub-divided as shown in Fig. 1.2.

When all constituent particles of a substance are same in chemical nature, it is said to be a pure substance. A mixture contains many types of particles.

A mixture contains particles of two or more pure substances which may be present in it in any ratio. Hence, their composition is variable. Pure substances forming mixture are called its components. Many of the substances present around you are **mixtures**. For example, sugar solution in water, air, tea, etc., are all mixtures. A mixture may be **homogeneous** or **heterogeneous**. In a **homogeneous mixture**, the components

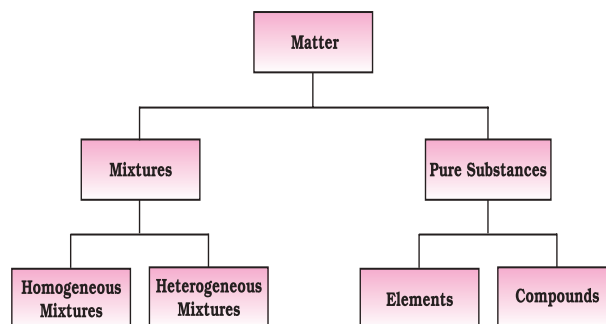


Fig. 1.2 Classification of matter

completely mix with each other. This means particles of components of the mixture are uniformly distributed throughout the bulk of the mixture and its composition is uniform throughout. Sugar solution and air are the examples of homogeneous mixtures. In contrast to this, in a **heterogeneous mixture**, the composition is not uniform throughout and sometimes different components are visible. For example, mixtures of salt and sugar, grains and pulses along with some dirt (often stone pieces), are heterogeneous mixtures. You can think of many more examples of mixtures which you come across in the daily life. It is worthwhile to mention here that the components of a mixture can be separated by using physical methods, such as simple hand-picking, filtration, crystallisation, distillation, etc.

Pure substances have characteristics different from mixtures. Constituent particles of pure substances have fixed composition. Copper, silver, gold, water and glucose are some examples of pure substances. Glucose contains carbon, hydrogen and oxygen in a fixed ratio and its particles are of same composition. Hence, like all other pure substances, glucose has a fixed composition. Also, its constituents—carbon, hydrogen and oxygen—cannot be separated by simple physical methods.

Pure substances can further be classified into **elements** and **compounds**. Particles of an **element** consist of only one type of atoms. These particles may exist as **atoms** or **molecules**. You may be familiar with atoms

and molecules from the previous classes; however, you will be studying about them in detail in Unit 2. Sodium, copper, silver, hydrogen, oxygen, etc., are some examples of elements. Their all atoms are of one type. However, the atoms of different elements are different in nature. Some elements, such as sodium or copper, contain atoms as their constituent particles, whereas, in some others, the constituent particles are molecules which are formed by two or more atoms. For example, hydrogen, nitrogen and oxygen gases consist of molecules, in which two atoms combine to give their respective molecules. This is illustrated in Fig. 1.3.

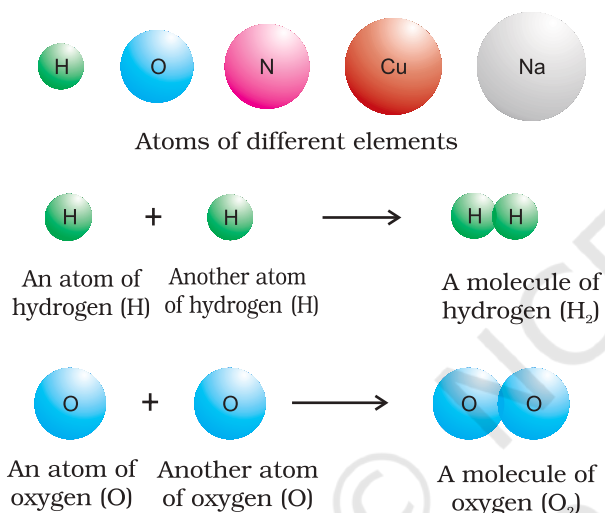


Fig. 1.3 A representation of atoms and molecules

When two or more atoms of different elements combine together in a definite ratio, the molecule of a **compound** is obtained. Moreover, the constituents of a compound cannot be separated into simpler substances by physical methods. They can be separated by chemical methods. Examples of some compounds are water, ammonia, carbon dioxide, sugar, etc. The molecules of water and carbon dioxide are represented in Fig. 1.4.

Note that a water molecule comprises two hydrogen atoms and one oxygen atom. Similarly, a molecule of carbon dioxide contains two oxygen atoms combined with one carbon atom. Thus, the atoms of different

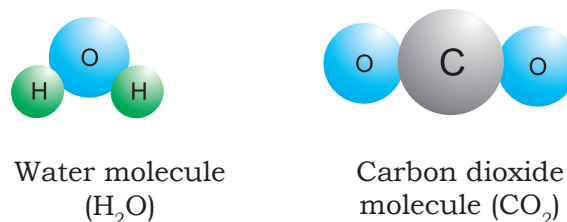


Fig. 1.4 A depiction of molecules of water and carbon dioxide

elements are present in a compound in a fixed and definite ratio and this ratio is characteristic of a particular compound. Also, the properties of a compound are different from those of its constituent elements. For example, hydrogen and oxygen are gases, whereas, the compound formed by their combination i.e., water is a liquid. It is interesting to note that hydrogen burns with a pop sound and oxygen is a supporter of combustion, but water is used as a fire extinguisher.

1.3 PROPERTIES OF MATTER AND THEIR MEASUREMENT

1.3.1 Physical and chemical properties

Every substance has unique or characteristic properties. These properties can be classified into two categories — **physical properties**, such as colour, odour, melting point, boiling point, density, etc., and **chemical properties**, like composition, combustibility, reactivity with acids and bases, etc.

Physical properties can be measured or observed without changing the identity or the composition of the substance. The measurement or observation of **chemical properties** requires a chemical change to occur. Measurement of physical properties does not require occurrence of a chemical change. The examples of chemical properties are characteristic reactions of different substances; these include acidity or basicity, combustibility, etc. Chemists describe, interpret and predict the behaviour of substances on the basis of knowledge of their physical and chemical properties, which are determined by careful measurement and experimentation. In the following section, we

will learn about the measurement of physical properties.

1.3.2 Measurement of physical properties

Quantitative measurement of properties is required for scientific investigation. Many properties of matter, such as length, area, volume, etc., are quantitative in nature. Any quantitative observation or measurement is represented by a number followed by units in which it is measured. For example, length of a room can be represented as 6 m; here, 6 is the number and m denotes metre, the unit in which the length is measured.

Earlier, two different systems of measurement, i.e., the **English System** and the **Metric System** were being used in different parts of the world. The metric system, which originated in France in late eighteenth century, was more convenient as it was based on the decimal system. Late, need of a common standard system was felt by the scientific community. Such a system was established in 1960 and is discussed in detail below.

1.3.3 The International System of Units (SI)

The International System of Units (in French *Le Systeme International d'Unités* — abbreviated as SI) was established by the 11th General Conference on Weights and Measures (CGPM from *Conference Generale des Poids et Measures*). The CGPM is an inter-

Maintaining the National Standards of Measurement

The system of units, including unit definitions, keeps on changing with time. Whenever the accuracy of measurement of a particular unit was enhanced substantially by adopting new principles, member nations of metre treaty (signed in 1875), agreed to change the formal definition of that unit. Each modern industrialised country, including India, has a National Metrology Institute (NMI), which maintains standards of measurements. This responsibility has been given to the National Physical Laboratory (NPL), New Delhi. This laboratory establishes experiments to realise the *base units* and *derived units* of measurement and maintains National Standards of Measurement. These standards are periodically inter-compared with standards maintained at other National Metrology Institutes in the world, as well as those, established at the International Bureau of Standards in Paris.

governmental treaty organisation created by a diplomatic treaty known as Metre Convention, which was signed in Paris in 1875.

The SI system has seven base units and they are listed in Table 1.1. These units pertain to the seven fundamental scientific quantities. The other physical quantities, such as speed, volume, density, etc., can be derived from these quantities.

Table 1.1 Base Physical Quantities and their Units

Base Physical Quantity	Symbol for Quantity	Name of SI Unit	Symbol for SI Unit
Length	l	metre	m
Mass	m	kilogram	kg
Time	t	second	s
Electric current	I	ampere	A
Thermodynamic temperature	T	kelvin	K
Amount of substance	n	mole	mol
Luminous intensity	I_v	candela	cd

The definitions of the SI base units are given in Table 1.2.

The SI system allows the use of prefixes to indicate the multiples or submultiples of a unit.

These prefixes are listed in Table 1.3.

Let us now quickly go through some of the quantities which you will be often using in this book.

Table 1.2 Definitions of SI Base Units

Unit of length	metre	The <i>metre</i> , symbol m is the SI unit of length. It is defined by taking the fixed numerical value of the speed of light in vacuum c to be 299792458 when expressed in the unit ms^{-1} , where the second is defined in terms of the caesium frequency $\Delta\nu_{\text{Cs}}$.
Unit of mass	kilogram	The <i>kilogram</i> , symbol kg, is the SI unit of mass. It is defined by taking the fixed numerical value of the Planck constant h to be $6.62607015 \times 10^{-34}$ when expressed in the unit Js, which is equal to $\text{kgm}^2\text{s}^{-1}$, where the metre and the second are defined in terms of c and $\Delta\nu_{\text{Cs}}$.
Unit of time	second	The second symbol s, is the SI unit of time. It is defined by taking the fixed numerical value of the caesium frequency $\Delta\nu_{\text{Cs}}$, the unperturbed ground-state hyperfine transition frequency of the caesium-133 atom, to be 9192631770 when expressed in the unit Hz, which is equal to s^{-1} .
Unit of electric current	ampere	The <i>ampere</i> , symbol A, is the SI unit of electric current. It is defined by taking the fixed numerical value of the elementary charge e to be $1.602176634 \times 10^{-19}$ when expressed in the unit C, which is equal to As, where the second is defined in terms of $\Delta\nu_{\text{Cs}}$.
Unit of thermodynamic temperature	kelvin	The Kelvin, symbol k, is the SI unit of thermodynamic temperature. It is defined by taking the fixed numerical value of the Boltzmann constant k to be 1.380649×10^{-23} when expressed in the unit JK^{-1} , which is equal to $\text{kgm}^2\text{s}^{-2}\text{k}^{-1}$ where the kilogram, metre and second are defined in terms of h , c and $\Delta\nu_{\text{Cs}}$.
Unit of amount of substance	mole	The mole, symbol mol, is the SI unit of amount of substance. One mole contains exactly $6.02214076 \times 10^{23}$ elementary entities. This number is the fixed numerical value of the Avogadro constant, N_{A} , when expressed in the unit mol^{-1} and is called the Avogadro number. The amount of substance, symbol n , of a system is a measure of the number of specified elementary entities. An elementary entity may be an atom, a molecule, an ion, an electron, any other particle or specified group of particles.
Unit of luminous Intensity	Candela	The candela, symbol cd is the SI unit of luminous intensity in a given direction. It is defined by taking the fixed numerical value of the luminous efficacy of monochromatic radiation of frequency 540×10^{12} Hz, K_{cd} , to be 683 when expressed in the unit $\text{lm}\cdot\text{W}^{-1}$, which is equal to $\text{cd}\cdot\text{sr}\cdot\text{W}^{-1}$, or $\text{cd sr kg}^{-1}\text{m}^{-2}\text{s}^3$, where the kilogram, metre and second are defined in terms of h , c and $\Delta\nu_{\text{Cs}}$.